

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 217 566

EA 014 701

AUTHOR Fontana, Lynn A.; Mehlinger, Howard D.
TITLE Citizenship Education.
INSTITUTION National School Boards Association, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY Danforth Foundation, St. Louis, Mo.
REPORT NO NSBA-RR-1981-1
PUB DATE 81
NOTE 31p.
AVAILABLE FROM Publications, National School Boards Association, 1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20007 (\$7.50; quantity discounts).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Board of Education Policy; *Board of Education Role; Citizen Role; *Citizenship Education; Citizenship Responsibility; Curriculum Development; *Demonstration Programs; Educational Objectives; Elementary Secondary Education; Needs Assessment; School Role

ABSTRACT

To help school boards respond to increasing concerns over citizenship education, the authors discuss the factors behind the current interest in citizenship education, different approaches to and programs for citizenship education, and steps toward mounting a citizenship education program. Among the factors identified as causing concern with citizenship education are the increasing complexity of and demands on the citizen's role and the decline of the family as an agent of citizenship education. The authors also ponder the purposes of citizenship education programs and the proper role of schools in citizenship education. Using six districts' exemplary programs, they describe alternative approaches to citizenship education, including multicultural, global, law-related, and futures education as well as education in morals and political participation. They recommend that boards develop a citizenship education curriculum only after studying local needs, student knowledge and beliefs, staff and parent perceptions, and community resources. Appended to the report are lists of the 6 exemplary programs, 14 resource organizations and 15 useful publications.
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Research Report 1981-1

Citizenship Education

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Citizenship Education

National School Boards Association

Jean S. Tufts, President

Thomas A. Shannon, Executive Director

James Betchkal, Associate Executive Director, Office of Program Services

Lee VanBremen, Assistant Executive Director, Special Services Section

Dale Gaddy, Director, Information Services

Toby S. Rabbin, Information Assistant

NSBA Research Report 1981-1

Citizenship Education is an original manuscript prepared for the National School Boards Association by Lynn A. Fontana and Howard D. Mehlinger, Indiana University, 513 North Park Ave., Bloomington, Indiana 47405.

Appreciation is expressed to the Danforth Foundation for partial support provided the authors in the preparation of this report.

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Foreword

Citizenship education is a new title for an old responsibility for American schools: preparing youth for their lives as citizens. The need for informed and responsible citizens was recognized by the founders of this nation and has been a primary impetus for the continuing development and expansion of American public education.

In addition to the need to educate youths for national citizenship, we face the challenge of preparing young people for world citizenship as well. Ours is truly a world community where the interdependence of nations is growing, where communication is becoming instantaneous, and where the threat of nuclear holocaust continues.

Citizenship education is, therefore, more than the emergence of new buzz words. It is the opportunity to re-think the school curriculum and to provide new leadership in preparing our young people to assume their roles as national and world citizens. While our schools do not bear the entire burden for this task, we must do our share as school leaders.

NSBA hopes that this report will give you practical insights about citizenship education and how your schools can respond to the challenge facing us.



Thomas A. Shannon
Executive Director
National School Boards Association

Status of Citizenship Education

Citizenship education is one of the primary responsibilities of schools in every nation. Although citizenship education is approached in various ways, and although the content of citizenship education is vastly different from one nation to the next, schools throughout the world are, nevertheless, expected to provide the knowledge, skills, and attitudes youth require to fulfill their future roles as adult citizens.

In the United States, citizenship education is as old as public education. Citizenship education in this country has had two main missions: (1) to encourage youth to become law-abiding productive citizens, and (2) to help youth acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they need in order to become active participants in the political process.

The rationale for citizenship education has changed from time to time. Thomas Jefferson argued that the survival of the American experiment in government depended upon a well-informed electorate. Horace Mann believed the schools should develop an "American identity" for each new immigrant. And in the 1940s and 1950s, citizenship education was used to alert American youth to the threat posed by totalitarian regimes.

Concern for citizenship education comes in waves: the troughs represent periods of relative calm; the peaks, times of political and social crises. Currently another wave appears to be moving through the United States, but this time the populous is not living in the aftermath of a Revolutionary War, accommodating hordes of new

immigrants, or even facing threats of invasion or political subversion. The current wave has arisen out of the very complexity of citizenship education today — what it has become and how schools can and should approach it.

This report explores some of the reasons why citizenship education is again attracting substantial interest in American society. In it are described some of the approaches and programs designed to meet current challenges. It contains suggested steps for local school leaders to take in mounting effective citizenship education programs.

Factors Affecting Citizenship Education

In part, the present condition of citizenship is a result of the growing complexity of the citizen's role. While citizens have access to more information than ever before, the quantity and quality never seem sufficient. The scope and complexity of social and political issues seem always to outrun the capacity of humans to comprehend, and without careful processing, much of the information loses its meaning and impact. Many current issues require specialized knowledge. For example, how is a typical citizen to advise his or her senator about whether to support the SALT II treaty? Experts disagree about the relative superiority of the United States as compared to the Soviet Union with regard to such topics as "throw weight" and "first strike capability." In such situations citizens may be inclined to leave the decision to experts,

but in the absence of agreement among the experts, which ones are to be trusted?

The foregoing notwithstanding, the range and complexity of modern life has not dampened Americans' ideological commitments to the proposition that individuals are capable of making wise decisions affecting public life. Thomas Jefferson asserted this article of faith as follows:

I know no safe repository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion by education.¹

What would Jefferson say if he could see us now? The electorate in his day represented a much narrower band of society: white, adult male, property holders. Today the United States aspires to provide full citizenship rights and responsibilities for every American regardless of sex, race, social class, and educational attainment. Moreover, the issues facing post-Revolutionary War America seem much simpler than those confronted today. Then, few people needed to devote full time to political affairs. Local issues were dominant and far more easily separated from national issues than is true today. Today, local, state, national, and global issues are often bound together in a seamless web. International policy has immediate implications locally, and direct action by citizens — consciously or not — can sometimes have global repercussions.

Agents of Citizenship Education

The partnership between family, church, and school that once carried main responsibility for citizenship education is less integrated today. Moreover, all three have been in a state of transition, particularly since the 1940s. The result is that they no longer reinforce each other to the degree that they once did.

The following changes in American family life underscore this point:

- The American divorce rate (38% of all marriages) is the highest in the world.
- Approximately four out of ten children born in the 1970s will spend part of their childhood in a single-parent family.
- Fifteen percent of all births are illegitimate, and more than half of these occur among teenagers.²

In short, a significant number of children are born to and grow up in family situations that likely will be less stable than in earlier decades, thereby shifting a portion of the burden previously carried by the family to other institutions. Some portion of the problems schools face and some of the services they provide are a result of individual families failing to meet their responsibilities.

Children, deprived of proper nurture when young, frequently feel alienated, frustrated, and angry; they vent this frustration through violent acts against society or resort to self-destruction. Indicators of such anti-social behaviors can be found in rates of suicide, homicide, and drug abuse among youth. Between 1950 and 1975, for example, the annual rate of suicide of white youths between 15 and 19 years of age increased 171 percent. During the same period, death by homicide increased more than 200 percent. In addition, the occasional use of drugs among high-school seniors increased 26 percent from 1960 to 1976.³ The number of crimes committed by youths, ages 10-17, has also grown; more than half of all serious crimes in the United States are committed by youths in this age group. Since 1960, juvenile crime has risen twice as fast as the adult rate.⁴

To a degree, new "agents" have stepped in to fill the socialization role previously served almost exclusively by parents. Television, for example, has become the ubiquitous baby-sitter and tutor for millions of young people. While experts disagree on just how powerful

the impact of television is, there is general agreement that it is important and that its impact can have anti-social effects. Victor B. Cline, a psychologist studying the impact of television on children, believes that it has a pervasive impact on children's attitudes and values toward crime and violence. He claims that watching television or movie violence for only a few hours per week stimulates aggressive behavior.⁵

Declines in Political Knowledge and Attitudes

Americans should be concerned by recent reports of a decline in the political knowledge and commitment of youth. A report published by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in February 1978 disclosed evidence of a decline in knowledge among American youth with regard to the structure and function of government, the political process, and the meaning of democracy. Moreover, students evidenced a decline in commitment to principles underlying the American political system, and in their concern for and knowledge about international affairs.⁶ Another study focusing on students from nine nations showed American students having less interest in and knowledge about international affairs than youth in other nations.⁷

The NAEP findings, however, were not entirely bleak. For example, the study revealed gains in understanding and acceptance of racial minorities and an increase among 13-year-old youth in appreciation of the need for law. Although these gains might stem from social change throughout American society, they might be attributable in part to curriculum changes.

Despite these few glimmers of hope, there is considerable reason for concern. Little is known about the actual political behavior of youth. If, however, their political behavior follows the patterns of the political attitudes

of adults, the news would not be good. A study by the Michigan Institute for Social Research found that the percentage of Americans distrustful of political authority increased from 10 percent in 1958 to 50 percent in 1976. A November 1980 Louis Harris poll showed confidence in the executive branch of the federal government slipping from 41 percent to 17 percent of the population from 1966 to 1980; confidence in Congress during this period fell from 42 percent to 18 percent.⁸

New Demands on Citizens' Competence

The rise of an interdependent global community has presented new, complex challenges to citizenship education. International affairs have affected the prices consumers pay for goods. For example, steadily rising oil prices have prompted inflation and contributed to unemployment. The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan has had a real impact on amateur sports in this nation; its impact on social programs so far has been less direct but no less certain if there is a sharp increase in defense spending matched by declines in funds devoted to health, education, and welfare. The American hostages in Iran have become a media event, with network news counting the days of their imprisonment, thereby arousing widespread sympathy for the captives and their families and contributing to a rising anxiety about the slumping prestige of the United States in the eyes of the world.

But what are Americans to do in the presence of such complex problems? The effects of such events are felt, but the capacity to help resolve the problems seem pitifully weak. Even political leaders seem almost paralyzed at times, trying to decide which decisions are best. While the personal influence a citizen may have on decisions to problems such as these may be minimal, it is vitally necessary that American citizens understand the problems better than is presently true. The

range of action available to political leaders is often circumscribed by boundaries of citizen ignorance. The more understanding there is by all, the greater the degrees of flexibility and the more creative alternatives available to leaders.

The Good Citizen

Everyone wants a citizenship education program that produces "good citizens," as opposed to "bad citizens." But past this point consensus falters. People do not agree on the characteristics of a good citizen, or at least given a list of possible citizen attributes, they assign them different priorities. For example, is honesty in personal affairs more or less important than support for equal rights, or patriotism, or a willingness to compete for public office? Part of the confusion stems from the fact that people assign different weights to the twin missions of citizenship education noted earlier. Some would be satisfied if citizens merely acted properly, abiding by social custom and law. Others want political activists. These different perspectives have historical roots.

The Greeks believed that political affairs was a high calling and that people reached their human potential by participating actively in public affairs. To the Greeks the interests of individual citizens were secondary to the interests of the political community as a whole. There are citizenship educators today who aspire to the Greek model. They would have every citizen fully knowledgeable and active in public affairs, overlooking the fact that in Athens those who were able to make such a commitment were a relatively small segment of the society and their ability to do so was purchased by the labor of slaves.

Other, competing views of public life and the role of citizens were dominant 200 years ago when the United States was founded. The founders were primarily concerned that the people have the right to select their own government officials through free elections and that the officials not be imposed upon

them by an aristocratic class. Moreover, they thought that people should be largely free to pursue their own interests, essentially free from government interference. An important citizen responsibility was to keep an eye on government and to resist its natural tendencies to extend its power and authority into new arenas. Clearly, other views regarding the responsibility of government and its relationship to citizens have appeared since that time.

This brief report cannot treat the entire range of views people hold about the qualities of the "good citizen" and the programs designed to produce them. It does, however, focus on civic citizenship — i.e., the traits citizens should possess if they are to fill properly their roles as political participants in modern American society. Limiting the treatment of citizenship primarily to its civic aspects narrows the range of opinion but does not eliminate all alternative conceptions. Citizenship educators who have developed programs designed to enhance the civic aspects of citizenship also differ among themselves on what is of paramount importance. Some of those differences are noted in subsequent portions of this report.

Typically, citizenship educators believe that all citizens must acquire certain kinds of knowledge, skills, and attitudes if they are to fulfill their roles successfully. Knowledge involves an awareness of basic premises of a democratic society, an understanding of formal and informal political processes, some insight into how these have operated in the past, and cognizance of contemporary problems and issues and their implications. Skills involve inquiry and intellectual skills — such as the ability to acquire reliable information and to reason reflectively, as well as advocacy and participation skills such as the ability to lead meetings, participate as a discussant, organize and articulate issues, and participate in campaigns. Attitudes involve a basic identification with the nation, its system of government, and its beliefs (i.e., freedom and other valued precepts).

but it also might involve a sense of personal identity and self-worth that enhances the individual's capacity to become a productive and cooperative member of society.⁹

The specific knowledge, skills, and attitudes one might promote depend somewhat on the purposes advanced. For example, if a school is most concerned that students will know and carry out their legal rights and responsibilities, it might design a program that is somewhat different from a program directed at helping students understand current public issues or another designed to enhance students' willingness and capacity for direct political action.

Indicated in Figure 1 are some of the ways that knowledge, skills, and attitudes might vary according to differences in program purpose.

Of course, any scheme of the kind described in Figure 1, while useful for purposes of analysis, falls short of representing all of the characteristics expected of citizens.¹⁰ All citizens need to be generally aware of public issues, although the amount of knowledge individuals possess and the topics on which they have informed opinions will vary tremendously. Nevertheless, individuals should know what action is likely to prove effective in any given situation if they are disposed to act.

FIGURE 1 — KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ATTITUDES AS THEY RELATE TO PROGRAM PURPOSE

Program Purpose	Knowledge	Skills*	Attitudes*
1. To make students aware of their legal rights and responsibilities	System of law and government Principles and values underlying them Relationship to human needs and cultural change Governance	Analysis Conflict resolution Ethical reasoning	Valuing democratic principles: freedom, equality, justice, human dignity, majority rule, and minority rights
2. To enhance understanding of current public issues	Political/economic/social systems and how they interrelate Issues of local, state, national, and international concern Global interdependence Public policymaking process Growth of public sector	Data-gathering (or generating) Information-processing and interpreting Problem-definition and solution Evaluating future consequences of policy alternatives	In addition to those associated with 1 and 3 — Valuing Group processes: leadership participation advocacy decision-making
3. To promote student interest and capacity for direct political action	Group processes Political and interest groups Structure and function of public institutions and their points of access Modes of participation and how they evolve	Listening, speaking Negotiating with authorities Perspective-taking Working with a group	Self-esteem Efficacy Personal identification and belonging Responsibility and concern for the group as a whole
*Some attributes listed here are not the sole responsibility of either citizen-education classes or even the schools. They are learned in a variety of settings, but, like basic communication skills, are vital to effective citizen education.			

Such general knowledge of public issues often results from a commitment to a single issue. For example, anger prompted by the violation of one's civil rights may lead an individual to pursue political activities in which he or she previously held no interest at all. Volunteering to solicit contributions for a local charity may lead to an interest in the operation of local welfare agencies and to knowledge about national welfare policies.

There is no easy way to separate one political interest or activity from others. What seems apparent is that they are related, and progress in one can contribute to gains in another.

Role of Schools in Citizenship Education

Schools contribute to the citizenship education process in at least three areas: the school curriculum, the co-curriculum, and the "hidden curriculum." Social studies makes the most substantial curriculum contribution to citizenship education through instruction in civics, American government, and American history as well as other courses; but, English, science, and business courses also contribute, if not so directly as social studies.

The co-curriculum of the school has long been accepted as a laboratory for citizen skills and knowledge. The student council and various clubs provide experience in government, mobilization of resources, and decision-making. Athletics offers opportunities for youth to experience commitment to shared goals and the development of cooperation and leadership.

Only recently has the "hidden curriculum" begun to be understood, and its impact appreciated. The "hidden curriculum" consists primarily of the rules, procedures, and leadership style of the school itself. If teachers and administrators exhibit no interest in or appreciation for student ideas,

this may teach students more about the relationship between leaders and followers than all of the civics lessons about the rights of citizens in a democracy. Rules administered in an arbitrary and discriminatory manner are negative lessons about the real-life application of equal opportunity principles.

There is much to be learned about the manner in which all of the factors affecting students' knowledge, skills, and attitudes combine in any single individual. All of these forces — within the school and outside of the school — are involved, but it is difficult to measure each precisely. One researcher who recently perused most of the literature on this topic came to the following conclusions:

1. Compared to other factors such as family and the media, schooling is an important agent for transmitting political information to youth and increases in importance from grade school to high school. It is somewhat less central an influence in shaping political attitudes and behavior, although for racial minorities and low social status groups it may be relatively more important than for higher status groups.
2. The teacher has modest impact on the political attitudes of youth — perhaps more for lower social status than higher status students. The extent of the teacher influence hinges upon his or her credibility.
3. Systematic and carefully aimed curriculum treatments can result in considerable political information transmission at both the elementary and secondary school levels.
4. The teacher does partly control a more powerful influence on student attitudes: classroom climate. This factor has been linked consistently and strongly to positive political attitudes. An open

climate of opinion expression in which controversial issues are discussed, and in which students believe that they can influence the rules and working of the classroom, is conducive to shaping political attitudes.

5. Participation in school governance and in the co-curriculum is related positively to political attitudes of students.

6. School organization and governance climate is related to political attitudes of students. More participant and less authoritarian climates are linked to more positive political attitudes and behavior of students.¹¹ Thus, schools can have an influence on the political knowledge, skills, and attitudes of youth — perhaps not so much as some would wish, but probably more than is currently being exploited.

Alternative Approaches to Citizenship Education

Many factors affect the citizenship education of youth: family, organized religion, media, youth groups, and others. The school is also important; the school curriculum, co-curriculum, and hidden curriculum all contribute. So why is it, when all of these forces affect children's knowledge, skills, and attitudes about civic life, that the emphasis is concentrated on the changing of the curriculum? Why does not reform center primarily on families, or churches, or television, or the Boy Scouts, or any of the other groups and associations that play a part in citizenship education?

Perhaps the activists work on improving courses because some aspects of society seem nearly invulnerable to directed change and because changing the curriculum appears comparatively simple. School leaders can add courses, drop courses, alter courses, and so on with relative abandon as contrasted to the job of changing child-rearing practices in families — or even changing how a school is administered, for instance. And while it may prove impossible to demonstrate that changing the curriculum actually produces changes in students, clearly something changes: students will follow a course of study, explore topics, or read textbooks different from those they did before the intervention. The reform strategy becomes its own reward.

The school curriculum currently contains courses intended to promote citizenship education. Most citizenship instruction occurs in the social studies. Civics, American

government, American history, and "Problems of Democracy" are four of the courses designed to promote civic behavior. Are these courses currently doing what they are supposed to do? No one knows for sure, but data on teenage crime, voter apathy, and other related topics previously addressed in this report indicate that some goals of citizenship education are not fulfilled to the desired degree. It is recognized that there are deficiencies in the quality of civic life in the United States. It is not known which part of the citizenship education process is peculiarly to blame, but the curriculum, at least, is something tangible that can be modified. Modifying, altering, manipulating, and otherwise "fixing" courses is what most citizenship education reformers can be found doing today.

Few, if any, persons who advocate curriculum change wish to take responsibility for planning a program of study that addresses the full range of citizenship objectives. Rather, they specialize. They choose one or more of the problems that beset citizenship education and attempt to develop solutions to these, leaving the remainder of the problems to other persons to solve. Consider, for example, the growth of teenage crime: can changes in the curriculum make a difference? Perhaps students would be dissuaded from crime if they knew more about the juvenile justice system, about life in correctional institutions, and so on. Or, perhaps the problem lies in defective moral development. Training in moral reasoning or values clarification might

help. Nearly every citizenship education reform proposal confronting schools rests on the assumption that changing what students study in class will not only change what they learn, but also it will affect how they act.

Among the recently developed approaches to citizenship education that have attracted nationwide interest are six that are described in this portion of the report. Each approach responds to a somewhat different social issue and pursues specific citizenship education goals. These six approaches are: multicultural/multiethnic education; global education; morals/values/ethics education; law-related education; political participation education; and futures education. These do not exhaust the possibilities but rather include many of the more visible approaches in use today.

Also described in this portion of the report is an exemplary program for each of the foregoing six approaches to citizenship education. These were selected because they exhibit features of the various approaches and because they range from efforts within single schools to system-wide — and even regional — programs. Some require the introduction of new courses; the majority add a new dimension, perspective, or content to existing courses. Most involve cooperation among two or more of the following groups: teachers, students, administrators, parents, representatives of the community, state departments of public instruction, universities, and accrediting agencies. The descriptions provide only the most essential information. Further details may be obtained by writing directly to the responsible agency. (See Appendix A, page 18, for a list of addresses and phone numbers.)

Multicultural/Multiethnic Education

In 1908 a popular play by Israel Zangwill opened in New York. One of the characters,

a Russian-Jewish immigrant, described America as "God's Crucible, the great Melting Pot where all the races of Europe are meeting and reforming."¹² It cannot be denied that immigrants to this country did assume new identities; they proudly proclaimed they were Americans and tried quickly to adjust to the new culture. But neither did they fully melt. And some groups were denied admission to the "melting pot," in particular black Americans and native Americans.

The 1960s was witness to the fact that cultural differences remain, that people take pride in those differences, and that the "melting pot" concept is no longer adequate — if it ever was — to describe the relationship among cultures in the United States.

Multicultural and multiethnic instructional programs address the problem of pluralism and unity in American society. Pluralism provides vitality and offers individuals choices in life style. On the other hand, every society requires a minimum level of consensus on a set of shared beliefs and values to ensure survival. A continuing dilemma for Americans is the determining of the proper balance between pluralism and unity in order to avoid social divisiveness. In other words, when does the pressure for unity and conformity begin to destroy individual freedom and social vitality?

Exemplary Program: "Multicultural, Non-Sexist Approach to Education"

An approved, long-range plan has been adopted by the Mason City Community School District in Iowa¹³ to revise the entire school curriculum in a systematic way so as to incorporate principles of equity, social justice, and human dignity and to eliminate unfair and biased treatment of women and racial and ethnic minorities.

Known as "Multicultural, Non-Sexist Approach to Education" (MCNS), this project reviews courses every five years in Mason City.

Project procedures are to assign a team of teachers and support staff to review courses. Course guides that incorporate MCNS principles are prepared. Textbooks, supplementary materials, and audio-visual resources that normally accompany a course are revised at the same time. When they are inconsistent with the new course goals, they are dropped from further use.

The in-service education of teachers has been an important part of this process. The Midwest Race and Sex Desegregation Assistance Center has provided workshops that sensitize teachers to racist and sexist bias in textbooks and provide training in curriculum and instructional development.

Global Education

What do rising oil prices, the American boycott of the Olympics, unemployment in the auto industry, and live television coverage of the Pope's world travels have in common? They are all examples of the way events in other countries can have a direct impact on American citizens; they are evidence that Americans have become part of an interdependent global community.

American schools have long accepted the responsibility for teaching the history, culture, and geography of other nations and regions of the world. What is new and emphasized in global education is the manner in which peoples of all nations have become increasingly intertwined with the lives of persons within and beyond the boundaries of their respective nations. Contacts between people are no longer primarily through nation states. Employees work for multinational corporations; the prosperity of American farmers depends upon a world market; American movies are made with an eye on their appeal abroad; and on it goes. There are few aspects of individual life that are not affected to some degree by events elsewhere on the planet.

Global education seeks to devise

instructional programs that will help students understand the implications of interdependence, that they are not only citizens of a community, state, and nation, but also citizens of a world community.

Exemplary Program: "School Improvement through Global Education"

The "School Improvement through Global Education" program of the Commission on Schools of the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges and the Charles Kettering Foundation is designed for schools that wish to add a global dimension to their curriculum but are unsure how to undertake the effort so that the results will be successful.¹⁴ Therefore, this project does not provide a set of curriculum materials a school can adopt for use in any particular grade. Rather, it provides a set of procedures through which schools can experience self-examination and self-improvement.

The "School Improvement" program promotes development of a global perspective. Four sets of goals guide the change process: (1) adoption/approval/support goals; (2) school-wide commitment, responsibility, and relationship goals; (3) curriculum considerations and individual responsibility goals; and (4) continuous improvement, monitoring, and evaluation goals. The program is aimed not at students but at faculty and staff. The assumption is that if the teachers and administrators agree that change is necessary and agree substantially on the nature of the change, change will occur. "Guidebooks," created for the program, help school district personnel structure the changes they desire. Each school district can implement the program to suit its own particular needs or circumstances.

The "adoption/approval/support goals" assist a local staff in determining whether it wants to become involved in the School Improvement program. The first guidebook, titled A Consensus and Diversity Workshop, provides information on how to establish an orientation in which staff members examine some global issues, consider the importance of the program, and make a decision

about whether to pursue the program further.

The "schoolwide commitment, responsibilities, and relationship goals" focus on program implementation. The *Implementation Guide* is a workbook containing suggestions for implementing the program. It emphasizes the importance of tailoring instruction to fit individual school situations and suggests alternative processes that might be considered in light of local circumstances and resources.

"Curriculum consideration and individual responsibility goals" spell out the four essential themes of the program: (1) understanding diversity; (2) recognizing the interconnectedness of the modern world; (3) developing the capacity for effective working relationships; and (4) knowing current world conditions and trends. These themes are not prescriptions but assist faculty in designing their own instructional programs. A third book, *A Guide to Four Essential Themes*, is intended to help teachers move from the level of abstract global concepts to practical classroom application.

Morals/Values/Ethics Education

At one time American schools were less cautious about moral education than they appear to be today. For most of our history, Bible reading and prayer were a regular part of opening exercises in public as well as private and parochial schools. The famed McGuffey readers were based upon moral lessons. Patriotism was unashamedly promoted and teachers were expected to exhibit the highest standards of morality and could be replaced if they slipped back to only a community average.

As a result of judicial decisions and changing mores in society, school leaders are less certain today about the proper ways of — indeed, the propriety of — values instruction. Apparently community support for values instruction is strong: a 1980 study by George Gallup found that 84 percent of parents wanted their schools to provide morals instruction.¹⁵ But school leaders have been unclear as to how to interpret this

support. Whose values should be taught and by what means?

Of course, schools cannot avoid teaching values, whether they wish to do so or not. Schools value honesty and so notify students when they punish students for cheating; they also value cooperation, punctuality, intellectual achievement, hard work, loyalty, respect for human dignity, and a host of other virtues. The crux of the matter is how explicitly such values should be promoted and to what degree promoting a particular set of values without permitting youth to embrace a contrary set is a violation of the school's own ethic. In short, is the school's task primarily to inculcate certain values or is it to help students become more thoughtful about values and decide for themselves by which values they will live?

Some persons believe that the school attitude toward most values ought to be similar to its posture toward stealing. School officials are not neutral on theft; they oppose it and punish the thieves when they are apprehended. Similarly, it is asserted that selfishness, greed, and racial hatred can also be treated as social vices and personal deficiencies that must be moderated if not eliminated. Others believe, at least for older youth, that the school has no right — and in reality lacks the capacity — to force compliance to particular virtues. The best that schools can do is to raise value controversies in class to provide students with skills in analyzing value issues, and to encourage them to reach their own conclusions and be willing and able to defend their choices.

Various points of view exist with regard to values education; these may be referred to as "pro-social," "value analysis," "value clarification," and "moral reasoning," among others. In practice, they differ primarily on their position regarding whether schools should promote particular values or whether they should teach students to think about values and make their own commitments.

Exemplary Program: "Ethical issues in Decision-Making"

The rationale of a project that is underway in the Scarsdale and Mamaroneck (New York) senior high schools¹⁶ is Lawrence Kohlberg's theories of cognitive moral development. Kohlberg believes that people grow in their capacity for moral reasoning in much the same way that maturity and environment affect cognitive reasoning. Kohlberg's research convinced him and many others that such reasoning proceeds in stages. He subsequently came to believe that carefully designed instruction can facilitate the natural development of moral reasoning and bring students to higher stages than they might otherwise reach on their own.

The "Ethical Issues" project features three main activities: an elective, semester-long course titled "Ethical Issues in Decision-Making"; a school governance model; and in-service education courses for parents, administrators, and teachers. The "Ethical Issues" course is offered to juniors and seniors at all four high schools in the two districts, using curriculum materials developed by the staff. The course is divided into units; each unit focuses on a set of moral issues divided into discrete classroom activities. The majority of the activities leads to class discussion of a "moral dilemma" that require students to reason about and make choices among conflicting rights and duties in a given situation. The series of units are structured so that the dilemmas become increasingly complex as students advance through the course, moving them to increasingly higher stages of moral reasoning.

The "just community" model of school governance, which has been implemented in the Scarsdale Alternative High School¹⁷, consists of weekly community meetings and small-group advisee meetings. The community meeting is an occasion for all of the students enrolled in the program to discuss issues confronting the entire community and to seek a "just" resolution of these issues. Issues could range from cheating on tests to improving understanding among students, faculty, and administrators. Leadership of the meeting rotates among members of the group. The advisee meetings are for sub-groups of

the entire community. These meetings are used to discuss issues prior to their presentation at the community meeting and to reflect on the consequences of community meetings. Teacher leaders try to promote cognitive moral development by focusing discussion on the analysis of issues and on the probable impact of decisions.

In-service training is required for all teachers who participate in the curriculum development phase and "just community" components of the project. In-service training consists of both introductory and follow-up courses for administrators, teachers, and parents. In the introductory course participants read articles and books about the theory of moral development, participate in moral-dilemma discussions, discuss video tapes of classroom performances of moral discussions, review moral education curriculum and its use, and design their own moral dilemmas for classroom use. In follow-up courses the project staff works with teachers who have experimented with lessons using moral dilemmas in order to help them develop complete curriculum units for use in their own courses.

Assessment of the outcomes of the course "Ethical Issues in Decision-Making" verified student gains in moral reasoning not attributable to mere maturation. Observations of student behavior in The "Just Community School" also indicated that students in this school operate at higher levels of moral judgment than do students in other schools.

Law-Related Education

Society in the United States is a legal society. It is difficult to imagine any aspect of daily life that is not somehow affected by law.

Advocates of law-related education believe the role of law in American society is neither adequately understood nor fully appreciated by American youth. While law-related educators agree that the school curriculum should devote greater attention to the law and legal processes, they differ among themselves as to where the emphasis should

be. They do not share the same opinions about the way in which ignorance of the law affects people. For example, some believe the most serious problem lies in the way the poor and uneducated reportedly are victimized by law. Unaware of their rights and incapable of reading and understanding legal contracts, they sometimes sign leases, make purchase agreements, or sign notes and other legal documents that have unfortunate consequences for their lives. "Street law" programs are designed to help such people cope better with daily, legal intrusions into their lives.

Others see crime as the most serious problem resulting from lack of understanding and respect for the law. They hope that knowing more about the police, the courts, juvenile justice, and the system of punishment will dissuade youth from crime.

Still others are alarmed at the lack of understanding of the fundamental principles that undergird the nation — principles articulated in the Bill of Rights and other documents. The focus of these reformers tends to be on Constitutional principles relating to legal rights such as free speech, trial by jury, and so on.

Exemplary Program: "Tri-County Law-Related Education Project"

In an effort to introduce law-related education into the curriculum of schools in districts in and around Portland (Oregon)¹⁸, the "Tri-County Law-Related Education Project" was launched — not to encourage new elective courses, but to seek opportunities to provide instruction about the law and legal processes throughout the existing curriculum.

For this to occur, the Project conducts three kinds of activities: "awareness workshops" for school administrators; in-service training for teachers; and curriculum development. The awareness workshops are intended to build understanding and support among school administrators for law-related education. The

assumption is that teachers are unlikely to invest much time in new course development without encouragement from building principals and central office administrators. In-service courses have been established for teachers for which they receive graduate credit from local colleges and universities. Some of the courses are offered by law professors; others by social studies educators and classroom teachers. Curriculum development has been directed mainly at the careful selection and utilization of existing materials rather than the invention of new materials. The Tri-County Project has made particular use of materials developed by the National Street Law Institute.¹⁹

In addition, the Project also serves as a training center for other teachers who wish to use materials from the Law in a Free Society project, and it will soon become a training center for the National Street Law Institute. An example of an activity developed by one Project and conducted jointly with Lewis and Clark School of Law is a "mock trial competition" in which students compete in the role-playing of actual trial situations. Local attorneys participate as judges of the competition.

Political Participation Education

Concern over political apathy has led some reformers to seek ways to give students direct experience in politics and government. By adopting the principle "try it, you'll like it," educators use the classroom to provide knowledge and skills that can be immediately applied to concrete activities in the community. Teachers arrange for interviews with local political and government leaders; students accept unpaid internships in local offices.

Some teachers develop political campaigns around one or more issues facing the city council or state legislature. Students study the issues, poll citizens for their opinions, interview advocates of various points of view as well as public officials who are most intimately involved, and sometimes lobby members of the council or legislature. Other teachers arrange for students to work with

various volunteer agencies in the community. Although such organizations may be less active in community political issues, students have an opportunity to observe how come citizens commit time and energy for community betterment. All of these activities are designed to push students out of the school into the political world of the community and state.

Because arranging for students to spend time away from school may be viewed by school officials as inappropriate or even dangerous, some schools have sought to create participation opportunities within the school. The school itself is used as a political system worthy of study. Students explore issues confronting the school, take positions, and seek to influence policy outcomes.

All of these participation techniques are intended to change politics from a spectator sport into something each student can experience directly. The best way to learn is by doing; advocates assume that this is also the best way to cultivate life-long interest in political affairs.

Exemplary Program: "Improving Citizenship Education"

A project of the Fulton County (Georgia) schools²⁰ is the "Improving Citizenship Education" (ICE) endeavor. ICE believes the purpose of citizenship education is to increase student awareness of politics and to enhance student skills in political interaction across multiple levels: peer groups, local schools, local communities, the state, the nation, and the world. Political knowledge and skills promoted through the project are linked to the everyday experiences of students.

ICE, which attempts to strengthen the citizenship education component of the curriculum from K-12, began when teams of teachers from eight elementary and seven secondary schools began regular meetings to establish guidelines to infuse political/citizenship education ideas throughout the social studies

curriculum. Whenever possible, the project takes advantage of already existing materials, such as textbooks, supplementary readers, simulations, games, graphic material, and non-print media. Each item is reviewed by teachers who recommend how and when the materials may be used best. When teachers find no suitable materials for some of their topics — in particular, materials on current issues relating to local, state, national, and global concerns — they develop the materials themselves.

The program's success requires the participation and support of several groups. First, community advice and support are sought through an Advisory Board, comprised of community leaders, public officials, and interested citizens. The Advisory Board helps develop a community resource file that lists opportunities for students to acquire first-hand experience in citizenship practices. The experiences are linked to classroom instruction so that students are able to apply their classroom learning to situations in the community. Second, teachers are responsible for planning the program. Because the teachers' attitudes, knowledge, and skills are considered critical to the program's ultimate success, teacher seminars are conducted. These seminars include information sessions with public officials and political scientists, as well as sessions on teaching strategies and curriculum materials. Third, administrators, including superintendents and their assistants, are important in shaping the school environment. They are kept abreast of project goals and methods through group sessions with project staff and teachers and by newsletters and periodic conferences.

The ICE project is now undergoing evaluation. Tests of student knowledge and attitudes; classroom observations; interviews with students, teachers, and others associated with the project; and daily logs are some of the devices being employed. While final conclusions must await the results of the assessment, a preliminary judgment is that this approach has been successful.

Futures Education

Proponents of futures education think many school courses are designed to help people

live in the past. They argue that schools ought to prepare students to live in the kind of world where they will spend their lives, not the one which their parents experienced. Futurists, who believe that the pace of change is likely to remain high or increase further rather than decrease in speed or intensity, believe teachers should help students learn to cope with change.

The futures approach to citizenship education incorporates a variety of techniques adapted from futurists' methodology. Trend extrapolation, for example, is a means of forecasting the future based on logical extensions of what has happened in the past and is happening at the present. Delphi forecasting involves polling and re-polling experts in a field regarding trends and developments to arrive at consensus projections. The scenario is a technique in which a writer describes a future state of affairs and then discusses the relevant variables and circumstances. Trend extrapolation, Delphi forecasting, and scenarios are only a few of the methods used in the futures approach to stimulate thought about the world today and the possibilities for the future.

Exemplary Program: "Futuristics"

A curriculum development project of the Richfield and Burnsville Senior High Schools in Minnesota²¹ is referred to as the "Futuristics" project. "Futuristics" is a one-year course offered to selected students in grades 10, 11, and 12 for English/social studies and general education credit. Students are selected on the basis of academic achievement, creativity, communication skills, and general attitude.

The purpose of the futuristics course is to introduce students to important aspects of future studies and help them develop their capacities to anticipate the future. The program has four

phases: thinking of divergent futures; techniques of futuristics; application of futuristic thinking and forecasting; and an internship in the community. Each phase is designed to expose students to different aspects of future studies.

Thinking about divergent futures includes the examination of works by futurists with a variety of perspectives. The "impressionists" are represented by Charles Reich's *The Greening of America*; the "romantics" by Theodore Roszak's *Where the Wasteland Ends: Politics and Transcendence in Post-Industrial Society*. Social scientists are represented by Daniel Bell in *The Coming of the Post-Industrial Age* and Donella Meadows in *The Limits of Growth*. Models for the future are explored in E.F. Schumacher's *Small is Beautiful* and R. Buckminster Fuller's *Synergetics*.

In the course, students study various forecasting techniques used by futurists and examine the assumptions, strengths, and weaknesses of such procedures. For example, students might explore the weakness of trend forecasting, questioning whether sufficient attention is given to outside forces, accuracy of data, and length of time frame. Students might also question the distortions created by looking at linear progression without considering other factors. Students are then encouraged to use a variety of techniques in conjunction with one another to overcome the inherent bias in each.

Students apply their new knowledge and skills in future studies through individually selected projects. Students choose topics such as genetics, international relations, and oceanography for research and forecast. The culmination of the course is an internship program. Students work for 50 hours with individuals in the community who are professionally engaged in making decisions that will determine the future of a field chosen by the student. Such work with people in local social service or government agencies provides students with personal insights into contemporary issues and an opportunity to employ their analysis and forecasting skills.

Suggestions for Improving Citizenship Education

School boards play several major roles in curriculum change. Chief among these is the development (and periodic review) of policies regarding curriculum needs assessments, program evaluation, and personnel accountability.

Prior to developing policy, local school officials should seek as much relevant information as possible. Board members, as well as curriculum specialists, need to be knowledgeable about the particular portion of the curriculum that is targeted for change. With regard to citizenship education, board members should find especially useful the resources described in this section of the report. Additionally, for board members desiring further guidelines on the role of the board in curriculum change, a list of relevant resources is appended (Appendix B).

Deciding What To Do

The first step in curriculum change should be the determination of needs. What do teachers, parents, and other community residents perceive as the local needs for citizenship education? What is currently underway? What do students know and believe? What local resources can be tapped for a citizenship education program? How does a new or modified plan materialize? All are significant questions to be addressed.

- **Local needs.** Implement a self-study. This can involve staff reports on current programs, public hearings, one or more

surveys of the local community, or a combination of these. Board members and administrators may be surprised by the range and quality of citizenship education activities that already exist in the schools once they have been identified and listed. Included in a list of programs and activities should be a description of the co-curriculum and the "hidden curriculum" as well as the formal curriculum. The list should also include programs stretching from kindergarten through grade 12. A surprising amount of "pro-social" activity may be underway in the primary grades, for example, that was not noticed previously or was not thought of as citizenship education.

- **Student knowledge and beliefs.** An appraisal of student knowledge, skills, and attitudes should be made. There are several assessment instruments that can be adopted for this purpose; the National Assessment of Education Progress is one. But, schools will also want to devise their own tests to measure the level and quality of student performance according to goals they believe to be important.
- **Perceptions of teachers and administrators.** Find out what teachers and school administrators believe the existing program's strengths and weaknesses are. It should be obvious, but sometimes reforms are undertaken without consulting those who will be expected to conduct the reforms. It makes little sense to invest time, money, and energy in installing a program in global education, for instance, when the teachers believe that the principal weakness lies somewhere else.
- **Perceptions of parents and others.** Similarly, identify the perceptions of parents and other

community residents with respect to citizenship education. School leaders should know what the local residents believe are the strengths and weaknesses of the existing program before undertaking reforms. For example, national opinion polls have shown that parents would support programs aimed at strengthening instruction about values in schools. It is difficult, however, to interpret locally a finding based upon a national sample of parents. Before undertaking a program relating to values instruction, school officials should want to know if parents feel it is needed and if so what kind of contribution they expect schools to make.

- **Community resources.** Finding out what community resources are available to support citizenship education is vital in the assessment and planning of the curriculum. School officials need to know what programs and activities relating to citizenship education are currently being conducted by agencies and organizations outside of the school. Possible examples are 4-H Clubs, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts. There is no point in the school's duplicating programs already conducted adequately by others. Additionally, schools need to identify resources that might be tapped for citizenship education purposes but are not currently being used. The police department is one illustration of an often-overlooked resource. "Officer Friendly" programs exist in many communities. An "Officer Friendly" is a police officer who visits elementary schools, primarily to discuss the work of the police in a community. Some high schools have developed programs that give teachers and/or students direct experience with police work. Every community has untapped resources that could be used for strengthening the citizenship education program of a school.
- **New Curriculum.** All of the previous steps are intended to provide the basis for the

development of a new or modified curriculum, if such is warranted. The proposed curriculum should contain a statement of goals and objectives; a description of the staff responsibilities assigned for different aspects of the program; and identification of program overlaps with churches, youth groups, and others in the community. Such a plan, once completed and adopted, should be widely disseminated and publicized in the school and community.

There are precedents for this approach to the reform of citizen education. In Cambridge (Massachusetts) representatives of various sectors of the community were assembled to explore citizenship goals and experiences. Discussions focused on such questions as: What is citizenship education? How does each group in the community influence students? What is most important to teach?²²

A similar effort was undertaken by Research for Better Schools, working with local communities in Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania to develop new programs in citizenship education.²³

Resources for Materials and Services

Once a school board has decided what it wants to do, there are many organizations that can provide resources in the form of materials and services. Space permits listing only a sample of these in Appendix B. Contacts with these organizations are likely to lead to others. For more detailed descriptions of current services, publications, and information regarding costs of each, write directly to the organization.

APPENDIX A: Projects Cited in Text

School Improvement Through Global Education

Charles F. Kettering Foundation
5335 Far Hills Avenue
Dayton, Ohio 45429
(513) 434-7300

Multicultural, Non-Sexist Approach to Education

Curriculum Coordinator
Mason City Public Schools
Mason City, Iowa 50401
(515) 779-2211

Tri-County Law-Related Education Project

Curriculum Administrator
Portland Public Schools
2820 S.E. 14th Avenue
Portland, Oregon 97202
(503) 249-2000

Ethical Issues in Decision Making

Scarsdale Alternative School
45 Wayside Lane
Scarsdale, New York 10583
(914) 724-9593

Futuristics: Theory and Application

Burnsville Public Schools
100 River Ridge Court
Burnsville, Minnesota 55337
(612) 887-7300

Improving Citizenship Education Project

University Coordinator
The University of Georgia
Institute of Government
Athens, Georgia 30602
(404) 542-2736

APPENDIX B: Organizations

AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON YOUTH EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP (YEFC), 1155 East 60th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60637, (312) 947-3960

YEFC serves as a national clearinghouse and coordinator for all aspects of law related education. It provides consulting services and assists in coordinating the efforts of educational systems, bar associations, and justice and community agencies. Publications of YEFC include guidelines, bibliographies, curriculum materials, audio-visual materials, and simulation games focused on law-related education.

ASSOCIATION FOR SUPERVISION AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT (ASCD), 225 North Washington Street, Alexandria, Virginia 22314, (703) 549-9110.

ASCD is a professional organization of supervisors, curriculum specialists, educators, and others who are interested in improving education at all levels. Among its publications are several books and articles on the various areas of citizenship education and periodic updates of curriculum trends. Specific topics of citizen education, such as global education, can be found in ASCD's publications catalogue under the heading "School and Society."

CENTER FOR CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION, 1100 Seventeenth Street, N.W., Suite 1000, Washington, D.C. 20036 (202) 466-2822.

The Center for Citizenship Education is a private, non-profit corporation established to

promote interest in citizenship education by publishing materials about citizenship education for the general public, by holding conferences and leader workshops on issues confronting the field, by advocating the need for improved citizenship education before public and private organizations, and by serving as a clearinghouse for information concerning developments in the field nationally.

CITIZENSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM, The Mershon Center, Ohio State University, 199 West 10th Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43201, (614) 422-1681.

The Citizenship Development Program promotes the development of basic citizenship skills by facilitating citizen and community participation in civic education. The program supports research and produces reports for federal and state agencies. In addition, the program has sponsored the development of a handbook and several guides for developing citizenship competencies.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION CLEARING HOUSE (CECH), 5331 Enright Avenue, St. Louis, Missouri 63112, (314) 367-6613.

CECH is a community-based organization that works with school administrators, teachers, university personnel, and community leaders to promote responsible participation. It offers a variety of services to schools, including teacher training and program development. CECH also publishes a newsletter three times a year that highlights current citizenship education activities.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION, DEVELOPMENT DIVISION, RESEARCH FOR BETTER SCHOOLS, INC. (RBS), 444 North Third Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19123, (215) 574-9300.

CE promotes citizen education in the tri-state region of Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. The RBS staff works with state planning groups, intermediate agencies, and local school-improvement teams to plan and develop citizen education programs, to evaluate practices and programs, and to disseminate information and resources. Publications include symposia papers, reports, and guides to citizen education.

CLOSE-UP FOUNDATION, 1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007, (202) 342-8700.

The Close-Up Foundation is an organization that arranges for week-long Washington seminars for high school students and their teachers. This is an intensive study of the Federal government and the national political scene. Close-Up has recently launched a program to provide television coverage for some of its sessions for schools unable to send students to Washington.

FUTURE SYSTEMS, INC. (FSI), Suite 207, 1422 West Lake Street, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55408, (612) 822-3181.

Future Systems is a non-profit, public service organization serving a wide range of clients in the public, private, and "independent" sectors. Future Systems is committed to facilitating the active participation of organizations and individuals in the exploration, planning, and development of their own futures. The Education Division offers a variety of programs and services to educational institutions, professional and trade associations, and citizen and interest groups. They assist in the integration of new and innovative approaches with more traditional methods of education to create instructional packages,

curricula, and teacher in-service programs that are future oriented and anticipatory.

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES IN EDUCATION, INC. (GPE), 218 East 18th Street, New York, New York 10003, (212) 475-0850.

GPE serves as an information bank for groups developing local programs for education for global perspectives and works with ongoing school programs to identify consultants and resources, and to provide information about curriculum programs, in-service programs, and school change efforts. *Intercom* is a quarterly publication of GPE. It deals with a broad range of issues relating to global education.

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES (NCSS), 3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016, (202) 966-7840.

NCSS strives to improve citizenship education through the social studies. NCSS publications include the journal *Social Education* and numerous bulletins, reports, and guidelines with articles related to various approaches to citizenship education. NCSS also holds an annual meeting and regional meetings in which issues in citizenship education are frequently addressed.

NATIONAL STREET LAW INSTITUTE, 605 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20001, (202) 624-8217.

This institute is concerned with citizen education in the practical aspects of criminal, consumer, corrections, family, housing, environmental, and individual rights law. It provides technical assistance and curriculum materials to law schools, school systems, departments of correction, bar associations, legal service associations, community based organizations, state and local governmental units, and others who are interested in establishing community law education programs.

RESOURCES FOR JUST COMMUNITIES,
Harvard Graduate School of Education,
Larson Hall, 315 Appian Way, Cambridge,
Massachusetts 02138, (617) 495-3546.

Resources for Just Communities is an educational, non-profit organization. The staff of Resources promotes the "just community" concept by facilitating positive, open interactions among faculty, staff, and students. Resources for Just Communities offers a number of services to school districts including lectures, workshops, in-service education, evaluation, and consulting.

SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION
CONSORTIUM, INC. (SSEC), 855
Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302 (303)
492-8154.

The Consortium provides consulting and workshop services to school districts on various topics as well as serving as the Social Studies/Social Science Education Clearinghouse for the Educational Resources

Information Center (ERIC). SSEC publishes numerous source books in social studies/ social science education, including curriculum guides, annotated bibliographies, and resource lists with many titles related to citizenship education. A free catalog of materials is available upon request.

SOCIAL STUDIES DEVELOPMENT
CENTER (SSDC), Indiana University, 513
North Park, Bloomington, Indiana 47405,
(812) 337-3838.

SSDC is a university-based curriculum research, development, and diffusion center devoted to promoting improvements in social studies. It produces commercially available curriculum products in geography, civics, American government, and world history. An American history and global studies program are under development. SSDC also publishes a newsletter that features articles on a variety of approaches to social studies/ citizenship education and provides consultant services to schools.

APPENDIX C: Publications

The following is a brief "starter list" of books and articles pertaining to citizenship education.

The most recent, comprehensive set of publications devoted to the status of citizenship education is the U.S. Office of Education series on Citizen Education. This series of seven reports examines critical issues on the status and needs of citizen education. Publications a. through g. are available from:

Superintendent of Documents
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, D.C. 20402

The series includes the following titles:

a. *Citizen Participation: Building a Constituency for Public Policy* (Stock Number: 017-080-01997-3, \$1.80) by Nea and Walter Toner. This document centers on citizen participation as an interactive process. The paper suggests that citizen participation involves an exchange of important information between public officials and citizens for use in planning and decision-making.

b. *An Analysis of the Role of the U.S. Office of Education and Other Selected Federal Agencies in Citizen Education* (Stock Number: 017-080-01999-0, \$2.00) by Ann Maust and Lucy Knight. Designed to help program developers and planners better utilize existing federal resources, this publication describes program mandates of the U.S. Department of Education, the National Science Foundation, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, and the National Endowment for the Humanities.

c. *New Directions in Communication Policy: Implications for Citizen Education and Participation* (Stock Number: 017-080-01998-1, \$1.60) by Larry Rothstein. This is an examination of the role of mass

communication in the development of civic competence. It considers the growing public interest in increasing access to the media, broadening the diversity of media content, and encouraging media responsiveness to public needs.

d. *Examining the Role of the Workplace in Citizen Education* (Stock Number: 017-080-1994-9, \$2.35). The perspective of labor unions and business on citizen education is treated in this source. It includes reports and papers from labor unions, corporations, and public interest groups with regard to the quality of work life programs and other relevant groups.

e. *Key Concepts of Citizenship: Perspectives and Dilemmas* (Stock Number: 107-080-1995-7, \$2.10) by Robert Salisbury. This paper presents philosophical interpretations of political participation, questions the extent to which participation promotes individual and group interests, relates participation to policy development, and discusses the intrinsic values of individual participation.

f. *Citizen Education and the Future* (Stock Number: 017-080-01996-5, \$2.30). This essay by Willis Harman deals with industrialization as a key for interpreting major contemporary developments and as a unique problem for the exercise of citizenship. The essay contains an exploration of alternative futures and their implications for citizen activity.

g. *Citizen Education Today: Developing Civic*

Competencies (Stock Number: 017-080-02044-1, \$4.25) by Elizabeth Farquhar and Karen Dawson. Examined in this report are issues of civic competencies, current research, and assessment data. The document also describes illustrative programs of schools and other institutions.

Education for Responsible Citizenship, Report of the National Task Force on Citizenship Education. This report is available for \$5.95 from McGraw-Hill Book Company (28th Floor, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10010). It is a compendium of papers by various writers addressing some of the salient issues in citizenship education.

The Citizenship Education Issue: Problems and Programs (Report No. 123) by LeAnn Meyer. Available for \$5.00 from Education Commission of the States (Suite 300, 1860 Lincoln Street, Denver, Colorado 80295) is *The Citizenship Education Issue* which touches briefly on the various aspects of citizenship education. It includes discussion of the historic and current forces shaping past and present programs as well as the most basic present issues.

Handbook of Basic Citizenship Competencies by Richard Remy. This publication is available for \$4.75 from Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (225 North Washington Street, Alexandria, Virginia 22314). The *Handbook* was prepared as part of the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project. Seven basic competencies are discussed: acquiring and using information, assessing involvement, making decisions, making judgments, communicating, cooperating, and promoting interest.

Building Rationales for Citizenship Education (Bulletin 52) edited by James P. Shaver. This item is available for \$4.95 from National Council for the Social Studies (3615 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016). *Building Rationales* is addressed to social studies educators. The bulletin is intended to involve teacher educators, teachers, and supervisors in re-examining curriculum assumptions and teaching decisions and their implications for citizenship education.

Who Teaches Citizenship? A Survey of Documents and Resources by Mary Jane Turner. Available for \$3.25 from the Social Science Education Consortium (855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302) is *Who Teaches Citizenship?* (Order Number 222) which is a review of citizenship education-related materials from education, business and industry, and labor and voluntary organizations.

Words Into Action: A Classroom Guide to Children's Citizenship Education and *Words Into Action: A Home and Community Guide to Children's Citizenship Education* are available free of charge on a first-come basis from Knowledge Interpretation Project for Citizenship Education, Research for Better Schools, Inc. (444 North Third Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19123). *The Classroom Guide* is designed to aid teachers, administrators, and school policy makers in linking research and theory to practical learning experiences. *The Home and Community Guide* is designed for non-educators who are interested in extending children's citizenship education beyond the schools.

Fred Newmann, Thomas Bertocci, and Ruthanne Landsness offer a comprehensive curriculum aimed at citizen participation appropriate for conventional secondary schools in *Skills in Citizen Action* which is available for \$2.25 from National Textbook Co. (8259 Niles Center Road, Skokie, Illinois 60076). *Skills in Citizen Action* is directed to high school teachers and administrators interested in more systematic curriculum in community involvement. The one-year English-social studies program outlined in the booklet focuses on the development of citizen skills.

Moral Education . . . It Comes with the Territory, edited by David Purpel and Keven Ryan. Published by Phi Delta Kappan, this book is available for \$13.50 from McCutchan Publishing Company (2526 Grove Street, Berkeley, California 94704). The book is a compendium of diverse insights, questions, and programs regarding moral education.

Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age by Lee Anderson. Available for \$7.50 from James Becker, Mid-America Program, Social Studies Development Center (513 North Park, Bloomington, Indiana 47405). *Schooling and Citizenship* is an endeavor to place in perspective the full meaning of global education and the realities that make it imperative.

Additionally, the October 1980 issue of *Educational Leadership* (journal of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development) features 18 articles on citizenship education, including such topics as "Criteria for Judging Citizenship Education Programs," "Continuing Challenges in Citizenship Education," and "Citizenship Education in a Global Age."

Notes

¹Gordon C. Lee, ed., *Crusade Against Ignorance: Thomas Jefferson on Education* (New York: Columbia University, Teachers Colleges, 1961), p. 17.

²*Vital Statistics of the United States, Volume I, Natality; Volume III, Marriage and Divorce* (Hyattsville, Maryland: National Center for Health Statistics, 1975).

³Edward A. Wynne, "Behind the Discipline Problem: Youth Suicide as a Measure of Alienation," *Phi Delta Kappan* (January 1978), pp. 307-315.

⁴*FBI Uniform Crime Report* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Justice, 1978).

⁵Victor B. Cline, *Where Do You Draw the Line? An Exploration Into Media, Violence, Pornography, and Censorship* (Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Press, 1974).

⁶*Changes in Social Studies Performance, 1972-76* (Denver, Colorado: National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1978).

⁷Judith Torney, A.N. Oppenheim, and Russell F. Farnen, *Civic Education in Ten Countries* (New York: John Wiley, 1975).

⁸"ABC News — Harris Poll" (New York: Louis Harris and Associates, November 1980).

⁹LeAnn Meyer, *The Citizenship Education Issue, Project Report No. 123* (Denver, Colorado: Education Commission of the States, 1979).

¹⁰Another Version of this table is found in LeAnn Meyer's *The Citizenship Education Issue, Report No. 123* (Denver, Colorado: Education Commission of the States, 1979), p. 29. Her table was derived from *An Analysis of the Role of the U.S. Office of Education and Other Selected Federal Agencies in Citizen Education* by Ann Maust and Lucy Knight. HEW Publication (OE) 78-07002.

¹¹Lee H. Ehman, "The Function of the School in the Political Socialization Process: American Findings,"

(paper presented at the International Conference on Political Socialization and Political Education, Tutzing, Federal Republic of Germany, October 10-14, 1977).

¹²Israel Zangwill, "The Melting Pot," Act I (1908).

¹³Mason City Community School District, Mason City Public Schools, Mason City, Iowa 50401.

¹⁴North Central Association of Schools and Colleges, 3700-B University Way, N.E., Seattle, Washington 98105. Charles Kettering Foundation, 5335 Far Hills Avenue, Dayton, Ohio 45429.

¹⁵George H. Gallup, "Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public School," *Phi Delta Kappan* (September 1980), pp. 33-48.

¹⁶Scarsdale High School, Scarsdale School District, Scarsdale, New York 10583. Mamaroneck High School, Mamaroneck Public Schools, Mamaroneck, New York 10543.

¹⁷Scarsdale Alternative High School, 45 Wayside Lane, Scarsdale, New York 10583.

¹⁸Portland Public Schools, 2820 S.E. 14th Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97202.

¹⁹See reference to organization on page 20 of this report.

²⁰Fulton County Public Schools, Atlanta, Georgia 30303.

²¹Richfield Senior High School, Richfield Public Schools, Richfield, Minnesota 55423. Burnsville Senior High School, Burnsville Public Schools, Burnsville, Minnesota 55337.

²²Nancy B. Wyner, *The Cambridge Study: Involving Citizens in Defining Citizenship Education* (Newton, Massachusetts: Educational Development Center, 1977).

²³*School Improvement Manual for Citizen Education School Improvement Teams* (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1978).

about NSBA . . .

The National School Boards Association, headquartered in Washington, D.C., is a not-for-profit organization whose primary mission is the general advancement of education through the unique American tradition of local citizen control. In this way, public elementary and secondary school policy is decided by local school board members, the vast majority of whom are elected and are directly accountable to the community. NSBA promotes the quality of education through services to state associations of local school boards and to local school boards; by serving as liaison with other education organizations and governmental authorities; and by increasing school board impact on federal education laws and regulations, and in court cases relating to education.

Active Members of NSBA are the 49 state associations of local school boards, the Hawaii State Board of Education, plus the boards of education in the District of Columbia and the Virgin Islands. Nearly 1,350 local district school boards are NSBA Direct Affiliates.

NSBA represents the interests of school boards before Congress; provides development programs for school board members; provides school district management services, and offers to the school board movement a variety of other services including the annual convention.

The award-winning monthly magazine, *The American School Board Journal*, has been owned and published by NSBA since 1967. Publication of a new monthly magazine, *The Executive Educator*, began in January 1979.

Three NSBA council-type groups and two forum groups play a significant role in the National School Boards Association:

- The Council of Urban Boards of Education focuses on serving the needs of urban school boards.
- The Council of School Attorneys focuses on issues of school law.
- The Conference of School Board Negotiators serves those engaged in labor-management relations.
- The Forum of Federal Program Coordinators focuses on the administration of federally funded programs.
- The Large District Forum focuses on the unique needs of major non-urban school districts.

NSBA also maintains liaison with other groups, including the National Caucus of Black School Board Members and the National Caucus of Spanish-speaking Board Members.

Founded in 1940, NSBA made its first headquarters in Chicago and later moved its offices to suburban Evanston, Illinois, to accommodate the organization's continuing growth and scope of activities. In 1966, the Office of Federal Relations was established in Washington, D.C., and in 1976, the entire NSBA operations moved into new consolidated headquarters in Washington, D.C.

NSBA represents about 95,000 of the nation's school board members who, in turn, represent more than 97% of all public school children in the U.S.

NSBA policy is determined by a 132-member Delegate Assembly composed of active school board members from across the country. Translating this policy into action programs is a Board of Directors consisting of 20 members. The executive director administers NSBA programs, assisted by a 95-member staff.